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N. E. FARMER.

Roxbury, Mass., Jan. 20, 1840.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE N. E. FARMER:

DEAR SIR—Below I hand you a communication addressed to *Elias Phinney, Esq.*, of Lexington, Mass. May I ask a place for it in your columns?

Believing the agricultural community will be benefited by the reply, I have preferred this course to that of confining the matter to a private correspondence.

I am your ob't serv't, G. P. B.

—

HAY TEA FOR SWINE.

TO ELIAS PHINNEY, Esq.:

MY DEAR SIR—I should not thus publicly have called upon you for any information which your long experience in swine breeding might suggest, but for the fact that your liberality is no less proverbial than is your opinion in these matters worthy of credit.

Within the last two or three years, I have bred and raised a considerable number of hogs, but, until within the last few months, I have been among the unbelievers touching "*improved breeds*" so called, and which are now circulating so much more generally than heretofore in our country. In September last, my attention was arrested by a pictorial representation of a Berkshire hog, at the head of an advertisement in one of our agricultural publications—the *picture* of which pleased me so much that I determined forthwith to try them. I purchased at your establishment two sows of your favorite and well known Berkshire and Mackay cross—I obtained a pair of Chinese sows out of imported stock—my Berkshires were from the stock of Caleb N. Bement and others—and in the early part of November last, my establishment consisted in part of fifteen breeding sows of the Berkshire, Chinese, Berkshire and Mackay, and other crosses, together with two Berkshire boars, and one large Mackay, Berkshire and Mocha boar. As occasion presented, I tried various experiments with these animals, and, in most cases, was pleased with the results.

Towards the latter part of December, 1839, a work entitled the "*American Swine Breeder*" was published. Amongst the variety of articles recommended therein as food for swine, I noticed that a "Mr Saunders, of Stroud, Gloucestershire, Eng., had made use of *hay tea* with much success." This gentleman "fed a stock of four hundred head of hogs, and in the course of his experiments used some 1500 hogsheads of the wash—maintained them at the very low rate of one penny per day—many of them were fit for the butcher," &c. &c. Economy in the *food* for swine being among the first considerations with me, I forthwith adopted the use of *hay tea*. The *kinds* of hay recommended were, "clover, sanfoin, and meadow hay." I purchased a small quantity of each, and commenced the experiment. In the outset I used clover *alone*. I then used herdsgrass, but did *not* use any of the meadow hay. Instead of using clear water, (as I had been used to do,) I mixed the food with hay tea (made after the directions advised in the work above named,) and fed it out in all respects as I had done previously, indiscriminately to breeders, store hogs, shoats, pigs and all. The tea was made not simply by my direction, or under my supervision, but by my own hands.

"It deserves particular attention," says Mr Saunders, "that in a week or fortnight after I commenced the experiment, the pigs improved in their coats, which, from looking coarse, assumed a gloss, and became fine and short, *a proof surely*, of the great nutrition of the food, and of its perfectly agreeing with the hogs," &c.

It deserves particular attention (*say I*,) that in a week or fortnight after *I* commenced the experiment, the pigs *did not* improve in their *coats*, or in any wise whatsoever—"*a proof surely*," at least, that "the great nutrition of the food" exhibited itself rather differently in the case of Mr Saunders, than it did in mine, as the sequel will show.

From the first week after I commenced using hay tea—breeders, shoats, and pigs—*all* began to decline. My large sows were all with pig, and some of them considerably advanced in pregnancy. I took the usual precaution, and commenced physicking—still feeding them on food mixed with hay tea, however, (not suspecting evil *then*,) but, despite of all my care, two of my Berkshires "popped off." Upon opening them, I found the lower intestines completely clogged, the lungs spotted and inflamed, and upon the liver appeared small biles or pustules. Still I did not charge it to the hay tea, and still I fed them as before. My Chinese sow, *Blue Belle*, suddenly looked languid, and, for a meal or two, refused to eat. I changed her food and mixed a dish of meal, well warmed, with a portion of salts and sulphur, which I placed before her. She would not eat. She was in the sixteenth week of her pregnancy, and being very heavy, I did not attempt *forcing* any thing down her throat, lest I should kill her young, and thereby, probably, lose the mother. I accordingly left her to herself, in a dry, warm pen, for the night, and in the morning found *her* dead. I opened her, and found her lungs and liver affected, as was the case with the others, but *particularly* like those mentioned before, with regard to the *intestines*—the latter being, as it were, *tied up into knots*—so badly clogged as they were. Here was also a loss of *twelve pigs*, out of as fine a Berkshire boar as can be found in the State. Still, I did not attribute it to *hay tea*.

Heretofore, my hogs had been fed upon squashes, potatoes, and my refuse cabbages, beets, carrots, &c. &c., together with an occasional mixture of ruta baga and house offal, all of which was thoroughly boiled and mixed before being fed to them. These kinds of food having become exhausted, I commenced more lately with ruta baga and sugar beets, (an equal quantity of each,) boiled together, mashed and mixed up with the hay tea—prepared as before. A pair of fine sows, of the Berkshire and Mocha breed, showed symptoms which led me to fear that they were to be the next victims.—I physicked them thoroughly, but to no purpose; one died, the other I killed, *to save its life*—or rather its pork. The choice Mackay sow I purchase at your establishment last fall, next refused he food. She was exceedingly fat, and I gave he the knife, in season to prevent her dying of her own accord. I will here remark that *all of these* were affected precisely like those which died first, except that in these last cases, the *livers* appeared very much worse than did those of the first, being in two cases *completely covered* with these hard, viscious looking biles, which must necessarily have destroyed them in a day or two longer, had they been left to themselves.

A young boar, out of a fine Grass sow in my possession last summer, promised well, and I purposed raising him, for his stock. At three months and a half old he shared the same fate with the rest, from the same cause, if I could judge from the symptoms exhibited during his sickness. It appeared that, uniformly, the pigs died within forty-eight hours after the first signs of indisposition. In this last case I had the boar placed alone in a new, floored pen, where I could watch the effect of medicine upon him. He would not swallow voluntarily, and I prepared a dose of castor oil and sulphur, which I forced down his throat at night. In the morning I could find no proof that the physic had operated and accordingly I had him tied up and poured about a gill of lard oil down his throat. After waiting eight hours, finding it produced no effect, but that he still declined, and had become quite stupid, I bled him in the feet, which for a while revived him. Towards evening, as a last resort, I attempted the use of *mercury*. Having obtained four pills of ordinary size, I mashed them and tried to force them into his stomach: it was *no go*, however. We tied him up again, but he appeared in great pain, and died before we could get the last dose into his mouth. Upon examination, I found his intestines knotted as in the previous cases, and not a particle of the medicine administered the day previous, had passed these knots.

"*Blind Nancy*," my oldest and best breeding sow, (originally from your establishment,) of the Berkshire, Mackay and Mocha breed, gave me eleven pigs on the 22d of December last, ten of which I found *dead* in her pen. Whether they were born alive or not, I am unable to say, but I am inclined to think they were not, as the last one lived only about an hour after its birth. Nine of these pigs had been purchased by different gentlemen in my neighborhood, at $10 each, "to arrive." This animal being a very superior one, I felt anxious to save, and of course spared no care or attention necessary to effect it. I had the satisfaction to find that she experienced very little apparent inconvenience from the loss of her fine brood, but on the contrary, did well after her *accouchment*, upon a slight allowance of *dry* food. In ten days afterward, I commenced feeding her as before, upon vegetables mixed with hay tea. On the 11th of the present month, she left her food in the trough, for the first time since I owned her, (being naturally a very hearty feeder,) and began to act suspi-

ciously. I tried physic again, but to no effect, and fearing to run the risk, after losing so many, I placed her most reluctantly, in the hands of the butcher. Her lungs were uncommonly *purple*, and her lower intestines were in the same condition as we had found the others.

My Chinese sow "*Plentiful*"—a fine breeder, from stock originally imported into Salem—on the 15th of this month, dropped twelve pigs (out of my Berkshire Boar) every one of which *came* dead! and from present appearances, I fear the mother will soon follow.

Thus you see, sir, I have met with several severe losses, and I cannot conceive but *the cause* of all these misfortunes is the same. The object, therefore, of this communication is *not* to assert that hay tea has killed my hogs (although I have abandoned the use of it, at least, for the present) but simply to state facts, and enquire of you, whose opinion in regard to this subject will be authority, whether or not it is probable that the astringent powers of the article herein named, (hay tea) are such as would produce these disastrous results, and, if not, what the cause can be, judging, as we only can, from the symptoms produced previously to, and the condition we find the body in after death.

Your opinion will greatly oblige one at least, and I doubt not that it will be thankfully received by all the readers of the Farmer.

I have the honor to be,

Your ob't servant,

GEORGE P. BURNHAM.

Roxbury, Mass., Jan. 20, 1840.

For the New England Farmer.

BUILDING STONE WALL.

Mr Editor—The communication in your last number taken from the Albany Cultivator signed A., informing the public how the New Englanders build their stone wall, will not apply to all parts of New England, however well it may to some portions.

My own practice, and that of others as far as I am acquainted is, after a layer of small and rough stones 8 or 12 inches in height (which by the way are all, if not more, placed below the surface of the ground) to place next a layer extending across the width of the wall, and upon these "a double row on each side of the wall 12 or 15 inches high," or, as would be better understood by one unaccustomed to the business, a single row on each side, forming a double one, and then go on to complete as A. said, by laying stones across so as to bind together the two sides, reserving smaller, but good shaped ones for completing the top of the structure. To place no stones across till it is raised 24 or 30 inches above the surface of the ground, if it is practised, as very probably it may be in places where stones are less abundant than in this region, is not the way to have a wall durable. A wall 3 1-2 or 4 feet high from the surface, should have at least two binders, that there may be no bulging out of the sides.

The writer of the article referred to, advises to plough about three furrows on each side of the wall to form an embankment against it, and thus by keeping out the frost, effect the standing of the wall upon his small stones of two feet in height. I take his word for it, that wall thus built and banked has stood the test of time.

And would he have these banks in his pastures, mowing and plough-fields? No serious objection in a pasture that I know of: but in a plough-field what would they be but waste ground, where bushes and briers would soon take possession, and as neither plough nor hoe would be likely to meddle, lest the wall lose its supporter, they would soon send their long and penetrating roots to the fine bed of mould under the wall, and firmly refuse a departure unless the building be torn from over their heads. In a mowing field they might not fare as well, for the scythe coming so near, they would probably get clipped unless the mower should be afraid of dulling his implement. No neat farmer would wish to have this balk left unmowed; and to get over it, together with the trench from which it was taken, every one could not do with ease and comfort, especially when in a hurry as haymakers are prone to be.

I would recommend to this gentleman, and others that have not already adopted the course, before commencing the wall, to remove the soil, (which is easily done with a plough) the width they desire to build. If the land be wet, let the earth be removed to the depth of from one to two feet; in this case middling sized stones should be used to fill. If the land be dry, small stones can be put in promiscuously, but upon them large stones the width of the wall should be placed, and a wall built upon these, I can say with A., "will stand the test of time."

There are many advantages in this course aside from the durability of the wall; you will remove from the farm a great incumbrance. On many farms there are vastly more small stones than can be worked into a wall above the surface, and to what better use can they be put than to bury them beneath? I have seen farms, where in the corners of the plough-fields there were heaps of from one to two hundred loads, at the same time all the occupants' walls laid right upon the surface, reeling this way and that.

Another advantage; there is nothing left under the wall for bushes and briers to live upon; of course they will not be troublesome.

But a still greater advantage; the soil thus saved is more in quantity and of greater value than most of my brother farmers who have not tried it would suppose. Allowing it to be taken off but three feet wide, every five and a half rods in length will furnish the surface of one square rod, and 880 rods in length, an acre;—if it be taken but six inches deep there will be 450 loads, in a cart of large dimensions. And to bank the wall as advised by A. double that quantity would be lost and worse than lost. To yearly cover with this soil the yard where cattle are wintered and during the nights of summer are kept, if the yard be rightly constructed, will retain the excrements of the cattle and with the additional labor of ploughing it once in two or three weeks during warm weather will become a fine top-dressing for grass, which no farmer having once tried, will feel that he can do without.

Nor do I agree with the writer in thinking there is no beauty to a stone wall. But if the stones are piled together without any regard to appearance, then no wonder that there is a want of beauty. There are comparatively few stones that cannot be laid to look well, and still be placed in such a manner as to give firmness and strength to the wall.

T. S.

North Brookfield, Jan. 20, 1840.

Massachusetts Horticultural Society.

EXHIBITION OF FRUITS.

Saturday, Jan. 11, 1840.

Mr James Leonard, of Taunton, exhibited specimens of the Burgomaster Pear, (so called in this vicinity) a great bearer, and one of the most profitable fruits for the market. We take this opportunity again to repeat, that this is not the true European Burgomaster, and have but little doubt but that it will prove to be the "Monsieur le Cure," of the European Pomological authors, and probably be identical with the Saint Lézin of the new edition of Duhamel, to which we refer.

Mr Manning exhibited the Bellflower Apple (Coxe No. 32); Winter Orange Pear (Coxe No. 37), and Beurre Sutin Pear. The scions of this last were received from Dr. Van Mons. The tree bore for the first time, this season, and promises to be a great bearer, and the fruit high flavoured and excellent.

Mr Warren exhibited beautiful specimens of the following Apples:—Rhode Island Greening, Roxbury Russet, Nonsuch, and two baskets of a new seedling, which has the character of a fine apple late in the season.

Mr D. Saunders, of Rowley, exhibited a basket of the Minister apple from the original tree, on his farm in Rowley. They were not so large as usual, and had been kept too long to support their reputation of a first rate fruit, which they undoubtedly deserve.

For the Committee,

ROBERT MANNING.

From Hovey's Magazine.

ON THE CULTIVATION OF CELERY.

As good celery is always sure to meet with a ready sale in the market, and commands a liberal price when found there, I propose giving a few practical remarks on the necessary treatment required from the first sowing of the seed in the spring, to the taking up of the roots, in the autumn, for use. In the first place, be it remembered, that the writer of this does not claim any greater knowledge than that possessed by gardeners and others, who have had experience in the cultivation of celery; but as this article may meet the eye of those persons who have not acquired the requisite knowledge to grow it to perfection, it is probable that they may glean something from it, that may be of some assistance to them.

There are six or eight varieties of celery cultivated, and all those who cultivate it, have their favorite kinds; nevertheless, I will venture to recommend the white solid, and the rose-colored solid celery, to be grown, either for the market or for private family use. The second week in April, if there is a cucumber frame at work, prepare two or three shallow boxes, and fill them with a fine rich soil, and sow the seed on the surface, with a liberal hand; then press it down pretty solid, with a piece of board, and cover it lightly with very fine sifted earth; this done, give the whole a gentle watering, and place the boxes in the frame, close to the front.

When the plants make their appearance, give them air every day, if possible, by propping up the sash, at the front, where the boxes are placed. As soon as it is perceived that the plants have the least tendency to grow weak, they must be removed from the frame, immediately to the *open air*, choos-

ing some well-sheltered spot. On the approach of foul weather, they may be removed to some place under cover, and taken out again after the unfavorable weather is over. If no frame, as spoken of, be at hand, sow the seed on a rich moist piece of ground, the last week in April, in a sheltered situation; the ground must be well enriched for this purpose, and the older the manure is, the better. Dig it over, and rake the surface very fine and even; then sow the seed pretty thick, on the surface, and with a clean spade beat it lightly down, nice and even, and cover it over, about a quarter of an inch, with fine soil.

As soon as the plants are about two inches high, they should be transplanted into a nursery bed—but previous to this, the ground must be well manured and dug over; then lay a board on the ground, in order to stand upon, and set the plants out in regular order, at least three inches apart, plant from plant. Some may think this last process too much trouble; but I can assure all who have such an idea, that it is a process indispensably necessary, and the utility of it will be presently seen. When the plants are taken up from the seed bed, before proceeding to transplant them, do not neglect to rub off all the side shoots, which it will be seen, are just making their appearance around the base of the plants, and cut off the end of the roots, if it is desired to produce first rate celery.

About the first or second week of July, the plants will be ready for the final planting out—their strong, robust appearance, by this time, I imagine, will give great encouragement to the grower, to go on and end the good work; but, on the contrary, if the plants had not been removed from the seed bed, as before advised, what a miserable appearance would they now make! so much so, that the stems being too weak to bear up the tops, now that they stand singly, they would lie flat upon the ground. When this is the case, the remedy is, to cut off the tops, and leave three or four naked stems sticking up—a disgrace to any person who has the least pretensions to its cultivation. The plants being so weak, it will be found necessary to shade them from the sun through the middle of the day, for some time, until nature has made a fresh effort, and the plants start to grow: not so with those that have been transplanted; for, by removing them with a trowel on a damp day, they will scarcely feel the change. This is the gain—for whilst the others will require shading and nursing, these will be making a rapid growth; and, however well the former plants are nursed, it is rare that they ever make such good heads as those that receive no check.

If the cultivator has a peat meadow, that is at *no time* overflowed with water, he will find it the best situation of any, for the growth of celery; but as there are but few, comparatively speaking, who have such facilities, the next best location would be where the soil is deep and moist, with the subsoil clay. One sure guide to go by is, always to prefer deep moist soil, whatever the sub-soil may be; for it matters not however rich the ground is made with manure; if there is a deficiency of moisture the growth will be stunted.

In preparing the trenches for the final planting, if the soil is deep, dig it out to the depth of eighteen inches by fifteen inches in width; and the length as far as is thought proper for the number of plants; six inches of the trench must be filled up with the best *old* rotted manure that can be procured; as long strawy litter is not suitable, it should never be used. After the manure has been thrown into the trench, it should be dug over, in order to mix the soil at the bottom of the trench thoroughly with it; this done, cut a little of the soil from each side of the trench, for the purpose of covering it about an inch, and it will then be ready for the plants, which should be set out six or eight inches apart, in a straight line, down the centre.

Keep the celery free from weeds, and earth a little, at different times, till the trench is nearly filled up; then earth it up *no more*, until it is done for the *last time*, which should be the first or second week of September, or sooner, if necessary. I have two reasons for following this process. The first is, that the roots of the plants are already covered as much as they ought to be, if we suppose the sun and air has any effect on them, or is of any benefit to them. My second reason is, that the celery will make a stronger growth, and will be very much superior, both in size and quality, to that which is earthed up every week or ten days, as is generally done. Good celery ought to be solid, thoroughly blanched, and of large size, and perfectly clear of any blemish, such as *rust* or *canker*.

Yours, J. W. RUSSELL.

Mount Auburn, Cambridge, Dec., 1839.

MAKING BACON.

Bacon is an article of use in nearly every family in this country, yet very little attention is paid to its preparation by most of our farmers. It is enough for them that the hams are taken out, salted at random, smoked in an imperfect manner, and this is then called Bacon. The western part of Virginia is most famous for its fine bacon, and those at the north who have in substance adopted the mode pursued there, find their bacon greatly improved.

Too heavy hogs are not as good for bacon as those that are smaller, if equally well fatted. One that will weigh two hundred is large enough, as the salt will strike through the pieces more equally, and the smoking be more perfect. It is essential for the first rate bacon, that the pork should be corn fed; at least if any thing is used in fattening, it should be in the first part of the time, and corn be given for five or six weeks previous to slaughtering. The pork of corn fed pigs will be hard and compact, and the kidney-fat instead of being soft and unctious like lard, will be solid like beef suet.

In the best establishments for making bacon, three pecks of salt and one pound of saltpetre are used for every thousand pounds of pork, the salt to be measured and the saltpetre reduced to powder, thoroughly incorporated or mixed with it. None but the best salt should be used in making bacon. At the south, that which is produced at the Kenhawa works, at the first crystalization is preferred; at the north, the coarse salt of the Onondaga works, or that produced by evaporation, is to be chosen as more pure than any other kind.

The prepared salt is to be thoroughly rubbed on the meat, and then liberally sprinkled over the outside. There is little danger of over salting from quantity; it is length of time that produces the result. The meat is to be laid with the skin side down in good casks, the hams and shoulders first, and then the smaller pieces. Salt must be sprinkled over the bottom of the cask before the meat is laid in. At the fourth or fifth day the meat must be taken up and again thoroughly rubbed with salt. At this period of the process, some use a tea spoonful of powdered red pepper to each piece, and the whole is replaced after any bloody or impure brine that may have formed in the cask is removed. In about two weeks, the smaller pieces will be fully salted, and should be taken from the cask, and the remainder repacked, those that were at the top being now placed at the bottom, as pressure will prevent the passage of the brine through the meat, if the position of the pieces is not changed. The shoulders will be struck through in about three weeks, and the hams in four.

Smoking is the next important part of the business, and should be well done, or good bacon cannot be made. Smoke houses are usually too small; the meat hangs too crowded and too near the fire. The pieces should by no means touch the wall or each other, but space for the free circulation of the smoke should in all cases be allowed. The time required for smoking is the same as that for salting—four weeks for hams, three weeks for shoulders, and two weeks for the other pieces or middlings. Damp weather is improper for smoking meat, as the bacon, from the dampness that is apt to settle on the meat, acquires a bitter flavor in some respects like that given by pyroligneous acid Sound maple chips, or blocks of hickory wood, are chosen for smoking meat, though the celebrated Hamburgh hams are smoked with oak wood alone. The smoke-house should be at a moderate temperature, as that will greatly assist in preventing the appearance of dampness on the meat. Two fires a day, if properly made, will finish the smoking in the time specified above. Some throw occasionly powdered red pepper on the fire, as it is said to prevent the attacks of insects on the bacon after smoking, and somewhat improves the flavor.

If the smoke-house can be kept perfectly secure against the entrance of insects, and is dark and cool, the bacon may be left in it till wanted for use. But there are few houses of this description; and on the approach of warm weather it must be taken down and packed away secure till required for the table. Salt, clean hickory ashes, or oats, will secure it from insects or dripping, if placed in a dry and cool position. The best mode of preserving hams is to pack them down in powdered charcoal, which will not only effectually exclude all insects whatever, but by keeping the meat dry, and correcting any tendency to unpleasant flavor, keeps the meat in good order for any length of time.—*Genesee Farmer.*

Improved method of training Raspberries.—Cut out all the weakest shoots, so as to leave only about six on a stool; then twist the point of one shoot from one stool with one shoot from the stool adjoining, so as to form an arch. Do the same with two other shoots of each plant, so as to form a triple arch between plant and plant, in the direction of the rows, all through the plantations; the space between the rows being left open as usual. The plants should be six feet apart every way. The fruit produced by the trained canes will be fully exposed to the direct influence of the sun and to that of the air, and there will be more room for the suckers.—*Floricultural Cabinet.*

It is easier to die without the thought of death, than to think of death without the apprehension of danger.—*Pascal's Thoughts.*

To be great is not in every one's power, but to be good is in the power of all.—*Cato's Letters.*

From the Journal of the English Agricultural Society.

PRESENT STATE OF THE SCIENCE OF AGRICULTURE IN ENGLAND.

[Concluded.]

There is another point connected with cattle, on which the extension of our present knowledge, as practised in the northern districts, and inquiry as to the possibility of further improvement upon those practices, appears extremely desirable: this is the feeding of stock. In our southern counties the arable farm is kept in heart chiefly by the manure of the sheep flocks, such flocks indeed as no arable farms can produce but in this country. The beasts kept during winter in the yard, sometimes poorly fed, and only not losing condition, trample the straw until it has the appearance, though it often possesses little of the virtues, of dung. On well-managed northern arable farms, on the contrary, the cattle are tied up in the yard to be fattened, and are fed not only on turnips, but on large quantities of oil cake, purchased at the expense often of many hundred pounds by the farmer. Now it is well known that the better the beast is fed, the more valuable is the manure produced, and that by oil cake in particular its fertilising power is almost doubled. Interesting experiments have been made at the instance of the Highland Society, with a view to ascertain the relative value of food in the stall-feeding of cattle; but much remains doubtless to be cleared up by experiments yet to be made.—It may even be worth inquiry whether, on farms where fattening of stock is largely carried on, a somewhat harder course of cropping might not be permitted, without fear of impoverishment to the land. Peas, for example, and on some ground, potatoes, are a scourging crop; but if the peas, instead of being carried to market, are given to the farmer's stock, it may be a question whether the superiority of the manure may not more than compensate to the farm the previous loss of condition which the crop has occasioned. On this subject of feeding, it is impossible to pass over that heavy article of the farmer's expenses—the keep of farm horses. Here, however, it will be sufficient to make a short extract from the printed report of a club of practical farmers, who have for some time met at Harleston, in Suffolk, for the excellent purpose of discussing doubtful points of agricultural science. It will not be useless, however, first to give a list of the subjects which they had selected for the last year's inquiry, since it shows the spirit of improvement which is at work in the agricultural body.

"On the use of saltpetre as a manure.
On the management and cheapest method of keeping farm horses.
On spade husbandry.
On the best method of improving neat cattle in the district.
On shoeing horses.
On stall-feeding.
On the best method of keeping farming accounts.
Whether or not it is beneficial to consume by stock any part of the straw the produce of the farm.
On chaff cutting."

With respect, however, to our immediate subject, the Report of the Harleston farmers, as it stands in the 'Mark-Lane Express,' Feb. 11th, runs as follows:—"Your committee, in common with every member of the club, was astonished to find that, amongst a body of farmers, all residing within four or five miles of the place of meeting, all using a similar breed of cart horses, and cultivating a similar description of land, such an astonishing difference in the expense of maintaining their cart horses should exist, amounting, in authenticated statements, to upwards of 50 per cent., whether estimated at per head for each cart horse, or per acre for the arable land." That is to say, not only, with an equal number of acres to plough, the horses of one farmer cost twice as much as those of another; in which case the difference might arise partly from the different number of working cattle maintained; upon which a second question would arise—which farmer had too many, or which had too few?—but also the very same number of horses stood in to one farmer at double the expense which they did to the other. "What greater proof," the Harleston committee very properly ask, "could be required of the necessity for discussion? and if no other subject had ever been brought before your club, we are of opinion that by debating this question alone it would have rendered incalculable benefit to the neighborhood; for what member, who now learned for the first time that his neighbor was cultivating his land at much less cost than himself in one of the heaviest items in a farmer's expenses, but would go home and improve on his farm management?"

It appears then, even from the superficial survey contained in these few pages, that the practice of farmers varies greatly in different parts of this country, on points where there is no question which practice is best. But it appears also that there are innumerable points of farming on which no one ought to give a positive answer, because no certain knowledge exists. How then is such certainty to be obtained on a matter which involves so large a national profit and loss? Surely, as in other sciences, by careful observation and well-considered experiment. But in many sciences this process, however difficult, is at least within the reach of every inquirer. The chemist requires but a room in which to set up his furnace and evolve his gases: not so the agricultural inquirer; he requires a large farm (for a small one would be insufficient,) and a large capital, too, practically engaged in its cultivation. Neither would one farm be sufficient, since the results of its treatment would apply to one soil only, and subsoil, one climate and elevation; whereas there are, even in this country, many soils and subsoils, climates and elevations; and it can scarcely be expected that, either by individual or by public means, such farms should ever be provided in such number. Still, we wish, as agriculturists, instead of uncertain local rules of practice, unknown beyond the districts in which they are severally handed down, to attain the knowledge of general certain laws, not less certain because liable to many equally certain local exceptions,—that is to say, if we wish to raise our important art to the rank of a science, this difficulty must be overcome. After all, however, it is not a difficulty with which we alone have to cope. On the contrary, botany, geology, and other sciences which might be named, depend equally upon the collection of numerous minute facts, by individual observers, over a large surface, even that of the whole globe. But it has been found, in these and in many departments of knowledge, that by the formation of permanent societies, having the promotion of the particular science for their special object, great progress has been attained. Such a society, by bringing together men who are already desirous of a common end, encourages their zeal, and attracts other laborers into the field. It also regulates their endeavors, as their mutual intercourse shows them more clearly the points of doubt which particularly require to be cleared up. Further, such a society, as it spreads forth its branches, provides a scattered but disciplined host of observers and pioneers. Lastly, the facts thus obtained are recorded, and gradually accumulate, until, by careful comparison of the points in which they agree, some general rule is discovered; and, of those in which they differ, the exceptions are also found, and the causes of those exceptions. It is thus that geology has grown into a science within the present century. It may be said, indeed, that the labor of observation on so minute and extended a scale is great, and the prospect of practical improvement, at best, problematical. It might be asked, in reply to such spiritless objections, why agriculture should be the only science in which patient pursuit of knowledge found no reward?—or whether, while the philosopher, from mere love of science, seeking, for instance, to learn the fixed causes which govern the most changeful and seemingly accidental of all natural things, notes down daily, from year to year, the shiftings of the wind and the rise or fall of the weather-glass, hoping that at last he may be able to arrange these endless vicissitudes under some regular system, and thereby know of a certainty the signs of the sky,—we, the owners and occupiers of the land, on a matter wherein we have a strong interest, in which the whole nation, as consumers, and many millions as laborers, have an interest also, on a matter too in which so much improvement has been long ago made, so much is still making, and so much is in prospect, should alone be so faint-hearted, or so short-sighted, as to doubt that, by our combined exertions, the bounds of our own science may be enlarged; and that, besides this hope, which is sufficient for the followers of other sciences, we may at the same time advance our own interests, give more bread—not to our loss, but with our own gain—to our dependent workmen, and strengthen at the same time the country's resources?

But such arguments are not needed. On the contrary, there are proofs on all sides, whether in the weekly increase of this society's numbers, in the local societies which are springing up in every county, in the farmers' clubs which are being formed, the new machines which are invented, new manures, and new varieties of seed which are announced—above all, and practically, in the improving face of the country; which show that the British farmer is not liable to the charge of being blindly attached to ancient practice, but is ready, with the caution however which befits a man whose livelihood is in agriculture, as well as his pleasure, to adopt improvements in his art, and even to seek for them—that the spirit of inquiry is afloat—that this Society is formed therefore in an auspicious time, and does but represent the wishes of those whose whom it seeks to unite in the road of knowledge, which they are already disposed to pursue, and that its exertions will be engaged, not so much in stimulating as in methodizing the general desire for improvement. How we may best combine and order the separate efforts of our individual members on the details of whose exertions, duly combined, in the various paths of our diversified art, to a common end, and carefully and honestly made known

to our body, our slow but steady progress will mainly depend—must form the future subject of our common consideration.

From Youatt's Treatise on Cattle.

THE LONDON DAIRIES.

[Continued.]

Rhodes's dairy has been established more than thirty years, but some of the same family or name have lived in that neighborhood nearly a century. "Mr Rhodes, farmer, near Islington," is referred to by Dr Brocklesby, in his treatise on the murrain which prevailed among cattle about the middle of the last century. The writer of 'London Dairies,' in the British Farmer's Magazine for February, 1831, gives a description of it, of which the following is the substance: The surface on which the buildings are placed, is a gentle slope of two or three acres, facing the east. The sheds run in the direction of the slope, as well for the drainage of the gutters as for the supply of water for drinking, which will thus run from trough to trough the whole length of the shed. The sheds are twentyfour feet wide; the side-walls being about eight feet high, with rising shutters for ventilation, and panes of glass let into iron frames for light. The floor is nearly flat, with a gutter along the centre, and a row of stalls, each seven feet and a half wide, along the sides, and adapted for two cows, which are attached by chains to a ring that runs upon an upright rod in the corner of the stalls. A trough or manger, of the ordinary size of those used for horses, is placed at the top of the stall. Four of these sheds are placed parallel and close to each other, and in the party-walls are openings a foot wide, and four feet high, opposite to each cow.—The bottom of these openings is about nine inches higher than the upper surface of the troughs, and contains a one-foot square cast-iron cistern, which contains the water for drinking; each cistern serves for two cows that are placed opposite to each other, but in different sheds; all these cisterns are supplied from one large tank. These cisterns have a wooden cover, which is put on while the cows are eating their grains, to prevent their drinking at that time, and tainting the water by dropping any of the grains into it. At the upper end and at one corner of this quadruple range of sheds is the dairy, consisting of three rooms, each about twelve feet square; the outer, or measuring room—the middle, or scalding room, with a fire-place and a boiler—and the inner, or milk and butter room.

At the lower end of the range is a square yard surrounded by sheds, some for fattening the cows when they have ceased to give milk, and the others for store and breeding pigs. The pigs are kept to consume the casual stock of skim milk which remains on hand, owing to the fluctuations of the demand. The milk is kept in a well, walled with brick laid in cement, about six feet in diameter, and twelve feet deep. The milk soon becomes sour there, but is then most nourishing to the hogs.—Breeding swine is thought to be the most profitable, and the suckling pigs are sold for roasting.

Beyond this yard is a deep pit or pond, into which the dung is emptied. There is a stackyard, sheds, and pits for roots, straw, and hay; a place for cutting chaff, cart-sheds, stables, and every building which such an establishment can require. The number of cows varies from four to five hundred.

The treatment of the cows is singular in some respects. The cows are never untied while they are retained as milkers. Some of them have stood in the stall more than two years. Mr Laycock, on the contrary, turns his cows out once every day to drink from troughs in the yard, and they remain out from half an hour to three hours, depending on the weather and the season of the year. From the end of June until Michaelmas, they are turned into the fields from six o'clock in the morning until twelve or one, and from two o'clock in the afternoon till about three o'clock on the following morning. Mr Rhodes's cows have always water standing in the cisterns before them.

We can readily conceive that, from the want of exercise, and consequent cutaneous perspiration, Rhodes's cows may give a somewhat greater quantity of milk than Laycock's; but on the other hand, when we think of an animal tied in the corner of a stall for twelve, or eighteen, or twentyfour months together, we cannot help associating the idea of disease, or tendency to disease, at least, with such an unnatural state of things; the feet and the digestive system would particularly suffer, and we should suspect a little vitiation of all the secretions and some deterioration in the quality of the milk. We should like to know the comparative state of health of the animals in the two establishments.—The inclination of our opinion would be strongly in favor of Mr Laycock's plan.

The principal food of the cows in both of these and in all the dairies of the metropolis, is grains; and as the brewing seasons are chiefly in autumn and spring, a stock of grains is generally laid in at those seasons for the rest of the year. The grains are laid up in pits, lined with brick-work set in cement, from ten to twenty feet deep, and of any convenient size. They are firmly trodden down, and covered with a layer of moist earth, eight or nine inches thick, to keep out the rain and frost in winter and the heat in summer. A cow consumes about a bushel of these grains daily, the cost of which is from fourpence to fivepence, exclusive of carriage and preservation. The grains are, if possible, thrown into the pit while warm and in a state of fermentation, and they soon turn sour, but they are not liked the worse by cattle on that account; and the air being perfectly excluded, the fermentation cannot run on to putrefaction. The dairymen say that the slow and slight degree of fermentation which goes on, tends to the greater development of the saccharine and nutritive principle, and they will have as large a stock upon hand as they can afford, and not open the pits until they are compelled. It is not uncommon for two years to pass before a pit of grains is touched; and it is said that some have lain nine years, and been perfectly good at the expiration of that period. The dairyman, however, must know his brewer, and be able to depend on him. The grains from a large ale brewery are the most nourishing. Those from the porter brewery are not so good; and those from the little brewers, who first draw off their ale and afterwards extract every particle of nutriment in the formation of table beer, are scarcely worth having.

Each cow is allowed a portion of salt. In Rhodes's establishment it is given with the grains. Laycock salts his rick when it is first made—a most excellent plan, for the hay is not only effectually secured from becoming mow-burnt or mouldy, but it is rendered more grateful to the animal, and we may venture to say, almost doubly nourishing, from the development of the saccharine principle. It is to be doubted, however, whether the cows obtain a sufficient quantity of salt in this way. Some should be given with the grains.

The grains are usually given about three o'clock in the morning, and two o'clock in the afternoon, being a little before the usual milking hours.—Between the milkings they have green meat, as long as the season will permit. Cut grass is a favorite and excellent food; but where it can be managed, the plan of Mr Laycock to let the cows cut the grass for themselves is a far superior one. Tares come in before the grass, and are afterwards given alternately with it. In winter, turnips, potatoes, and mangel-wurtzel, are given as long as they can be obtained at any reasonable price; and then the dairyman is driven to hay or chaff: the superiority of chaff is now generally allowed.

Both of these gentlemen fatten off their dry cows with grains, oil-cake, and clover chaff, to which Mr Laycock adds boiled linseed. Our readers may recollect the experiments made by the Duke of Bedford on the fattening quality of linseed, boiled and unboiled, and in which the simple unboiled linseed fattened the animals more expeditiously than any cooked preparation of that seed. Mr Laycock boils the linseed in a common boiler, and when reduced to a pulp, conveys it by tubes into large wooden cisterns, where it is mixed with clover chaff roughly cut, and sometimes with grains.

These wholesale dairymen usually agree with the retail dealers, that they (the dealers) shall milk the cows. The dealer knows the quantity of milk that he wants, and the dairyman knowing the usual quantity of milk yielded by each cow, calculates what number of cows will meet the demand, and the retail dealer attends at three o'clock in the morning and two in the afternoon, to milk these cows. He carries it into the measuring room, where its precise quantity is ascertained. If, as cows often vary considerably in their flow of milk in the course of two or three days, he has milked more than his quantity, it is put into a vessel belonging to the dairyman; or if the cows should not have given their usual supply, the deficiency is made up from the dairyman's vessel. The milk which is left on hand is put into shallow vessels, the cream skimmed and made into butter, and the skimmed milk thrown into the pit for the hogs.

The joint-stock dairies, which a few years ago sprung up in such abundance, have either ceased to exist, or the number of cows much diminished. have fallen into private hands. While there were many partners, and the business was controlled by a committee of persons who knew nothing at all about the matter, they all proved to be lamentable failures. Some of them, even in the hands of private individuals, who brought with them little or no experience, were sadly ruinous concerns. The Metropolitan dairy was a striking illustration of this; but now, under the management of those who have been drilled into the business, it is doing better.

When a true genius appears in the world, you may know him by this sign, that the dunces are all in confederacy against him.—*Swift.*

The happiness of every man depends more upon the state of his own mind than upon any one external circumstance; nay, more than upon all external things put together.—*Sir W. Jones.*

NEW ENGLAND FARMER,

AND HORTICULTURAL REGISTER.

Boston, Wednesday, January 29, 1840.

SPEED THE PLOUGH.

The Second Agricultural Meeting was held at the Representatives' Hall on Thursday of the last week.

Hon D. P. King, President of the Senate, was appointed chairman of the meeting. Mr A. W. Dodge, representative from Hamilton, was chosen secretary of the meeting.

The Commissioner of Agriculture having expressed to the meeting his reluctance at taking upon himself the responsibility of conducting the meetings, selecting subjects for discussion, and requesting gentlemen to address the meeting, it was voted that a committee of arrangements of five gentlemen should be appointed, who in conjunction with the Commissioner, should have the charge of this subject. The following gentlemen were appointed on this Committee:

Mr Dodge, representative from Hamilton,
Mr Clark, " " Northampton,
Mr Cushman, " " Bernardston,
Mr Buckminster, Editor of the Boston Cultivator,
Mr Bosson, " " Yankee Farmer.

To these the chairman of the meeting was joined; and it was afterwards voted in committee that the members of the joint committee of the Legislature on agriculture should be invited to form a part of this committee.

It was voted, likewise, that the meetings be held regularly on every Thursday evening during the session, unless the hall should be wanted by the Legislature; that the meetings should be opened at 7 o'clock precisely, and with a general understanding that they should be closed at 9 o'clock, extraordinary circumstances excepted.

The meeting was well attended, though the streets on account of the rain and snow, are seldom in a worse condition, and access to the house was therefore difficult. More than two hundred however, were present; and listened with very high satisfaction to Dr C. T. Jackson, Geological Surveyor of Rhode Island, Maine and New Hampshire, full of knowledge and enthusiasm in these his favorite pursuits, especially in their connexion with agriculture.

Dr Jackson treated at large the subject announced for the evening, *Soils and Manures*. It was our intention to have given as full a report of his remarks as we could make out from our imperfect notes, but we want a little more time than we now have on hand to do either him or ourselves any thing like justice in this matter, and as we hope for the pleasure of hearing again from him on this subject, we for the present postpone it. We design, however, to give a sketch in the best manner we are able, for our next week's Farmer.

It may be thought hardly consistent with the gravity of the subject, to say that the meeting was attended with enthusiasm; but we shall do only justice in saying that there was manifested the strongest interest in the objects of the meeting and as strong a conviction of the useful bearing of these meetings upon the objects proposed.

At a subsequent meeting of the Committee of Arrangements it was voted, that several gentlemen then designated, should be requested to favor the meeting with their attendance and with addresses on such subjects connected with agriculture as they might choose. This part of the arrangement was not, however, completed farther than to invite the Governor, who was for some time President of the Bristol Agricultural Society, to address the next meeting.

The committee having waited upon the Governor, he expressed his strong approbation of, and interest in, the great objects of the meeting, but on account of pressing engagements, declined the service at this time, but gave reason to hope that he would hereafter confer the favor desired.

The committee were also instructed to apply to Professor Silliman, of Yale College, now in the city delivering a course of geological lectures, who has been kind enough to encourage the expectation that the meeting shall be favored by him as soon as his engagements admit of his doing it. Professor Silliman and Mr B. Silliman, Jr. have been likewise invited by the committee to attend the agricultural meetings and consider themselves as members of the body.

The next meeting will be holden to-morrow (Thursday) evening, and the unfinished subject of the last meeting, Soils and Manures, will come up again for discussion. Dr Jackson having by no means completed his views of the subject, it is hoped will again address the meeting: and as the attendance was comparatively thin, a wish has been expressed that he may recapitulate as far as he may find it convenient, the instructive remarks given at the last meeting.

It is desired that any gentlemen having subjects which he wishes should be considered, or queries that he desires should be answered, would hand them in writing to the Secretary of the meeting or the Commissioner of Agriculture, that they may be laid before the committee of arrangements.

It is understood that the meetings are open to all who choose to attend; and as far as the subjects are connected with natural science, with domestic industry, with rural improvement and the moral welfare of the community, so far from there being any objection to their attendance, we think the ladies would be often much interested, and the meeting would feel gratified and honored by their attendance. H. C.

We must say that our correspondent W. B. is a good fellow. His communications are always welcome and read with much interest. The subjoined, on the connexion of science with agriculture, will be found after the address we had at the agricultural meeting on Thursday, a valuable 'formation' and exactly 'in place.'

— H. C.

SCIENCE AND AGRICULTURE.

Mr Colman—In a promissory note to our article on 'Science for Farmers,' in the Farmer of Dec. 6, we gave 'premonitory symptoms' that the subject would be continued. *Then*, it was our design to pursue it forthwith, but circumstances which we should not willingly have avoided, however desirous we were of continuing our series, have prevented our giving them hardly 'a local habitation' in our mind until the present time. And *now*, since the cause of our delay is removed, or in other words, has become effete, we 'leave the things which are behind,' and 'again reach forward' in the task which we have voluntarily assumed.

How under the canopy it could ever be supposed that ignorance could successfully cultivate the soil, we cannot well divine; but common sense, observation, and the whole retinue of whys and wherefores to whom the case is referable as judges and jurors, when truth gives in its testimony, must give judgment against such delusive speculations, and if there is any hope for escape for those who utter so abominable a doctrine, it must be through the ragged loop-hole of sheer ignorance. But what are the sciences connected with our 'earthly ball' which demand the attention of the farmer?

Geology, or the science of the earth, as regards its formations and structure. Our pledge does not require, nor will our knowledge or the limits to which we of necessity must restrict ourselves, permit us to enter into detail in this or the other sciences. This much, however, we say for Geology—its object is to class the various rocks and strata, of which the crust of the earth is formed, and as the earths which constitute the elements of soils, are formed by the disintegration or wearing down of rocks, soils must, in consequence possess qualities similar to the rocks from which they originate, and of course, inasmuch as the character of soils differ, so will also the *productiveness* of the soils to which they contribute. Now is that science which tells us, on our ascertaining the prevailing character of the rocks in New South Wales the qualities of the soil in that region, a matter to be slighted? Or shall a knowledge of the science which teaches us by ascertaining the dip of a ledge in our own neighborhood, whether it pushes into the earth so as to become no hindrance, or lies along slightly buried by the surface, so that there cannot be depth of earth sufficient to overact the pinchings of drought or aid the purposes of successful vegetation, be deemed superfluous? Nature sometimes places sterile soils in the vicinity of productive ones. There are natural causes for such effects, and Geology leads us to trace them out, and avoid what might be unpleasant consequences to the farmer, who forsooth would purchase, because he sees the lands in close proximity, waving in rich foliage. Another advantage may be supposed to originate from a knowledge of this science, and one in which the *American* farmer, as he is the lord of the soil he cultivates, must be deeply interested. Mineral wealth usually lies buried below the surface, and seldom, unless by the merest accident, comes out to tell of its existence. Yet there are general geological signs or indications by which its lurking places may be found, the depth of incumbent strata be ascertained, and often the limits of the buried treasure decided upon with a precision which would cause the eyes of ignorance to stare as though they had seen a vision. We can form a tolerably accurate estimate of the healthfulness of a country by its geological formation. Primitive regions usually possess the purest water and purest atmosphere, while alluvials are the most destitute of either, particularly in the earliest stages of their improvement; yet these last possess the greatest fertility and of course retain it the longest; hence they furnish the farmer an inducement which counterbalances the fear of sickness, by promising the greater reward for his labor at a less expense. Which of the two regions is most desirable, bringing all things into account, we are not the judge to decide, but we simply urge the claims of the science which tells where either are to be found.

Mineralogy.—Notwithstanding this science has the same materials for its base as the former, it is essentially different in its effects. The former we have said relates to the earth in its various formations: the latter has for its object an investigation of the qualities and uses of the materials of which it is composed: the former is an out-doors employment, as it must take things where they are: the latter brings specimens of the former to the cabinet and investigates their intrinsic qualities. Does any wonderer gape and inquire if this science is necessary for a farmer?

We have in our "enlightened New England" heard of famers taking valuable granite and marble from the quarries and laying it into walls as unconsciously as though they had never heard of the existence of such minerals, much less of their value. We have also heard of individuals selling their right to soils simply because they were unproductive, when in fact the very cause of their sterility was the abundance of rich minerals contained in them. We know not what we have around us until we learn. It is often the case that man casts his pearls away simply because he knows not that they are such. Most readers will recollect the anecdote of the Scotchman, who went to a jeweller in London, purchased for his wife an expensive necklace, and on enquiring what part of the world was so rich as to furnish such splendid jewels as were set in it, was filled with perfect dismay at the response, that they were furnished by his *own farm*, where tons and tons o' them were there remaining Had he been a mineralogist, and paid attention to the fracture of rocks he would never have obliged himself to the London lapidary for intelligence of what his farm contained, nor have lugged home, at a great expense, a trinket, the essential beauties of which he might have gathered by cartloads for nothing, and perhaps have received a rich remuneration for doing so instead of giving them away as formerly. But in its application to the supposed *simple* and *unassuming* operations of agriculture, mineralogy is a useful science. The materials of similar rocks do not in places and in all circumstances enter into the same combinations. For instance, lime, a mineral whose existence is appreciated as a criterion to the soil wherever it is found, and which in a manufactured state, is valuable in the recuscitation of many soils, runs into eleven species and a still greater

number of varieties. Hence we conclude that all limestones are not the same limestones, but that they possess, in a greater or less degree, qualities foreign to their excellence for agricultural purposes, and besides they possess different degrees of solidity, which render them, more or less subject to detrition and mixture with the soils. As in our country, all mineral wealth is found in the hands of the landholder and cannot be wrested from him without his consent to being overreached by sharpers, who are always ready to practise intrigues on the unwary. As all soils derive their qualities from the mineral substances contained in them, and possess fertility in proportion to these qualites, we urge, and in doing it we would cry aloud and spare not, the necessity of every farmer being a mineralogist, and having a cabinet of specimens, which by a few years of care he can collect from every quarter of the globe. His facilities, for such accumulations, are certainly great, living as he does in daily communion with rocks and stones, and holding, as he does, an intercourse with every people and tongue under the whole heavens, through which he might obtain the noblest specimens and form an acquaintance with every clime.

Mount Osceola, Jan. 19, 1840. W. B.

LARGE LEMONS.

We have been favored with the sight of a pair of large lemons grown upon one twig, which weigh 2 1-4 lbs.—One of them measures 14 inches round one way and 15 1-2 inches the other way. They were raised in the green house of Mr Timothy Bigelow, of Medford. The tree on which they grew is said to be fifty years old and planted in the ground. They are the largest and finest shaped lemons we have ever laid eyes upon. J. B.

BRIGHTON MARKET.—Monday, Jan. 27, 1840.

Reported for the New England Farmer.

At Market 344 Beef Cattle, and 1085 Sheep.

Prices.—*Beef Cattle.*—Prices obtained last week of a like quality were fully sustained. A few better cattle were at market and higher prices were obtained. First quality, $6 50 a $6 75. Second quality, $6 00 a $6 50. Third quality, $5 00 a $5 75.

Barrelling Cattle.—Mess $5 50; No. 1 $5 00.

Cows and Calves.—We notice a few sales—$25, $28, $32 and $35.

Sheep.—We notice lots taken at $2 75, $3 00, $3 50, $4 00, and a lot of fine wethers at $5 00.

Swine.—None at market except a few from the neighborhood.

THERMOMETRICAL.

Reported for the New England Farmer.

Range of the Thermometer at the Garden of the proprietors of the New England Farmer, Brighton, Mass. in a shaded Northerly exposure, week ending January 26.

Jan., 1840.	7 A.M.	12, M.	5, P.M.	Wind.
Monday, 20	22	35	30	W.
Tuesday, 21	30	40	32	W.
Wednesday, 22	12	20	19	N.
Thursday, 23	35	20	35	N.
Friday, 24	8	15	13	W.
Saturday, 25	2	16	5	S.
Sunday, 26	5	12	11	N.

NOTICE.

The Fruit Committee of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, are requested to meet at the rooms of said Society, No. 23 Tremont Row, on Saturday next, February 1st, at half past 10 o'clock, A. M. E. M. RICHARDS, Chairman.

January 29, 1840.

FOR SALE.

An excellent Farm, pleasantly situated about 20 miles from the city, containing about 100 acres. For full description, particulars, &c. inquire at this office.

Also, a situation wanted by a man with a small family to carry on a farm.

January 30. 4w

VEGETABLE CUTTER.

Willis's New Improved Vegetable Cutter. This machine is calculated for cutting up vegetables and esculent roots for fodder, and is one of the most useful and economical machines that the farmer can use. The subscribers feel great confidence in recommending this machine to the public; they are aware that it has been long wanted and they now offer a machine that cannot fail to give satisfaction upon a fair trial. It will cut with ease from one to two bushels per minute, in the best possible manner, and is not liable to get out of order, being made in the most substantial manner. No farmer should be without one of them. For sale at the Agricultural Warehouse, 51 and 52 North Market Street.

December 18. JOSEPH BRECK & CO.

GREEN'S PATENT STRAW CUTTER.

JOSEPH BRECK & CO. at the New England Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store, Nos. 51 and 52 North Market Street, have for sale, Green's Patent Straw, Hay and Stalk Cutter, operating on a mechanical principle not before applied to any implement for this purpose. The most prominent effects of this application, and some of the consequent peculiarities of the machine are:

1. So great a reduction of the quantum of power requisite to use it, that the strength of a half grown boy is sufficient to work it very efficiently.

2. With even this moderate power, it easily cuts two bushels a minute, which is full twice as fast as has been claimed by any other machine even when worked by horse or steam power.

3. The knives, owing to the peculiar manner in which they cut, require sharpening less often than those of any other straw cutter.

4. The machine is simple in its construction, made and put together very strongly. It is therefore not so liable as the complicated machines in general use to get out of order.

BONE MANURE.

The subscriber informs his friends and the public, that after ten years experience, he is fully convinced that ground bones form the most powerful stimulant that can be applied to the earth as a manure

He keeps constantly on hand a supply of Ground Bone, and solicits the patronage of the agricultural community. Price at the Mill 35 cents per bushel; put up in casks and delivered at any part of the city at 40 cents per bushel, and no charge for casks or carting

Also, ground Oyster Shells

Orders left at the Bone Mill, near Tremont road, in Roxbury, at the New England Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store, No 52 North Market Street, or through the Post Office will meet with prompt attention

NAHUM WARD.

SCIONS OF FRUIT TREES FOR SALE.

The collection of fruits cultivated at the Pomological Garden consists of more than 1400 varieties of the Apple, Pear, Plum, Cherry and Peach. Scions of all those which have been proved are offered to nurserymen and others. Gentlemen wishing to send collections of American fruits to their friends in Europe can be furnished with most of those of first rate quality. They are warranted true to their names, and are in all cases cut from fruit bearing trees.

Salem, January 28, 1840. ROBERT MANNING.

AMERICAN SWINE BREEDER.

Just published and for sale by JOSEPH BRECK & CO. the American Swine Breeder; a Practical Treatise on the Selection, Rearing, and Fattening of Swine, by Henry W. Ellsworth: price 75 cents.

January 15.

Culture of the Beet and Manufacture of Beet Sugar.

Just published and for sale at the N. E. Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store, a treatise on the Culture of the Beet and Manufacture of Beet Sugar, by David Lee Child. Price 75 cents.

January 22.

A MAN WANTED.

To do the work on a small place, a few miles from the city. He must understand the cultivation of vegetables, fruits, &c., and the care of horse, cows, &c. A single man, from 20 to 30 years of age, of steady and industrious habits, may inquire at this office. J. B. I.

January 15.

ROHAN POTATOES,

For sale at the New England Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store, No. 52 North Market Street, at $5 per barrel.

October 16. JOSEPH BRECK & CO.

WHOLESALE PRICES CURRENT.

CORRECTED WITH GREAT CARE, WEEKLY.

		FROM	TO
Alum, American,	pound	5	5½
Ashes, Pearl, per 100 lbs.		5 50	5 75
Pot, " " "		5 12	5 25
Beans, white, Foreign,	bushel	1 62	2 00
" " Domestic,	"	2 00	2 00
Beef, mess,	barrel	14 00	14 50
No. 1.	"	12 00	12 50
prime,	"	10 00	10 50
Beeswax, white,	pound		
yellow,	"	28	35
Bristles, American,	"	35	70
Butter, shipping,	"	11	13
dairy,	"	17	20
Candles, mould,	"	13	14
dipped,	"		
sperm,	"	40	41
Cheese, new milk,	pound	10	
Cider,	dozen	1 50	1 75
refined,	barrel	2 50	4 50
Bone Manure,	bushel		35
in casks,	"		40
Feathers, northern, geese,	pound		
southern, geese,	"	37	46
Flax. (American)	"	9	12
Fish, Cod, Grand Bank,	quintal	2 62	2 70
Bay, Chaleur,	"	2 25	2 37
Haddock,	"	1 25	1 50
Mackerel, No. 1	barrel	12 00	12 25
No. 2,	"	10 00	10 25
No. 3,	"	6 00	6 25
Alewives, dry salted, No. 1.	"	5 00	5 28
Salmon, No. 1,	"	18 00	20 00
Flour, Genesee, cash,	"	6 87	7 00
Baltimore, Howard street,	"	6 62	6 75
Richmond canal,	"		6 75
Alexandria wharf,	"		
Rye,	"	4 00	4 25
Meal, Indian, in bbls.	"	4 00	4 12
Grain: Corn, northern yellow,	bushel		85
southern flat, yellow,	"	69	71
white,	"	65	67
Rye, northern,	"	75	80
Barley,	"	75	80
Oats, northern, (prime)	"	45	47
southern,	"	37	40
Grindstones, pr ton of 2000 lbs. rough,		18 00	20 00
do. do. do. finished,		28 00	30 00
Hams, northern,	pound	9	10
southern and western,	"	7	8
Hay, best English, per ton,		16 00	18 00
Eastern screwed,		13 00	14 00
Hops, 1st quality,	pound	18	20
2d quality,	"	17	18
Lard, Boston,	"		10
southern,	"	9	10
Leather, Philadelphia city tannage,	"	29	30
do. country do.	"	25	27
Baltimore city tannage,	"	26	28
do. dry hides,	"	22	24
New York red, light,	"	21	23
Boston, do. slaughter,	"	21	22
Boston dry hides,	"	20	22
Lime, best sort,	cask	85	90
Molasses, New Orleans,	gallon	27	30
Sugar House,	"	50	55
Oil, Sperm, Spring,	"	1 10	1 12
Winter,	"		1 20
Whale, refined,	"	50	55
Linseed, American,	"	70	75
Neat's Foot,	"	95	
Plaster Paris, per ton of 2200 lbs.		2 87	3 00
Pork, extra clear,	barrel		
clear,	"	15 00	16 00
Mess,	"	12 50	13 00
Prime,	"	11 50	12 50
Whole Hogs,	pound	5	6
Seeds: Herd's Grass,	bushel	2 50	3 00
Red Top, southern,	"	80	1 00
northern,	"		1 50
Canary,	"	2 25	2 50
Hemp,	"	2 25	2 50
Flax,	"	1 37	1 62
Red Clover, northern,	pound		
Southern Clover, none,	"		
Soap, American, Brown,	"	5	7
" Castile,	"	12	13
Tallow, tried,	"	11	12
Teazles, 1st sort,	pr M	2 50	3 00
Wool, prime, or Saxony Fleeces,	pound		
American, full blood, washed,	"		
do. 3-4ths do.	"		
do. 1-2 do.	"		
do. 1-4 and common,	"		
Northern pulled. Pulled superfine,	"		
No. 1,	"		
No. 2,	"		
No. 3,	"		

MISCELLANEOUS.

THE WILD FLOWER.

BY J. F. SMITH.

Sweet wilding tufts that, 'mid the waste,
Your lowly buds expand;
Though by no sheltering walls embraced,
Nor trained by beauty's hand:

The primal flowers which grace your stems,
Bright as the dahlia's shine,
Found thus, like unexpected gems,
To lonely hearts like mine.

'T is a quaint thought, and yet perchance,
Sweet blossoms, ye are sprung
From flowers that over Eden once
Their pristine fragrance flung.

That drank the dews of Paradise
Beneath the starlight clear;
Or caught from Eve's dejected eyes,
Her first repentant tear.

ETHAN ALLEN IN ENGLAND.

Col. Ethan Allen was a man destined to strike the world as something uncommon, and in a high degree interesting. He was but partially educated and but obscurely brought up; yet no man was ever more at ease in the polished ranks of life than he. Not that he at all conformed to their artificial rules and title etiquette; but that he observed the dictates of natural good sense and good humor. His bearing was in total defiance of fashion, and he looked and acted as if he thought it would be a condescension thus to trammel himself. It is well known that early in life, in his own country, he acquired an influence over his fellow-men, and led them on to some of the most daring achievements. He seemed to have possessed all the elements of a hero—a devoted patriotism, a resolute and daring mind, and an excellent judgment.

His conduct as a partisan officer is well known in this country, and was of great service to the cause of liberty during our revolutionary struggle. He was taken prisoner and carried to England; where his excellent sense, his shrewdness and wit, introduced him into the court region. A friend of our earlier life, who was well acquainted with this part of the history of this singular man, used to take great delight in telling us some anecdotes of Col. Allen, while a prisoner in London. We have before mentioned the firmness with which he resisted the attempts to bribe him from the cause of his country, and the caustic satire with which he replied to a nobleman, who was commissioned by the ministry to make him formal offers to join the British cause in America. The incident is a striking one, and will bear a repetition.

The commissioner, amongst the tempting largesses, proposed that if he he would espouse the cause of the king, he might have a fee simple in half of the State of Vermont. "I am a plain man," said Col. Allen in reply, "and have read but few books, but I have seen in print somewhere, a circumstance that forcibly reminds me of the proposal of your lordship: it is of a certain character that took a certain other character into an exceeding high mountain, and showed him all the kingdoms of the earth and the glory thereof, and told him that if he would fall down and worship him, these wou'd all be his; *and the rascal*" added he, "*did'nt own a foot of them!*"

His interview with the King at Windsor is mentioned as highly interesting. His Majesty asked the stout-hearted mountaineer, if they had any newspapers in America. "But very few, and these are but little read," was the answer. "How then," asked the King, "do the common people know of these grievances of which they complain, and of which we have just been speaking?" "As to that," said he, "I can tell your Majesty, that amongst a people who have felt the spirit of liberty, the news of oppression is carried by the birds of the air and the breezes of heaven." "That is too figurative an answer from a matter of fact man, to a plain question," rejoined the King. "Well, to be plain," answered the rebellious subject, "among our people the tale of wrong is carried from man to man, and fron neighborhood to neighborhood, with the speed of electricity; my countrymen feel nothing else: 'out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.' I will add, with great respect to your Majesty, that such a people cannot be put down with the sword."

The King made a long pause, as if strongly impressed with the truth of his remarks. At length, changing the subject, he asked Col. Allen if he knew Dr Franklin; and being answered in the affirmative, inquired concerning his experiments with electricity, and expressed a curiosity to experience an electric shock. The British sovereign seemed to take pleasure in the conversation, which he kept up for more than an hour, and at length made Col. Allen promise to visit him with his countryman, Dr Franklin, at his palace in London. Some weeks after this, he was reminded of his promise by the nobleman above mentioned, and an hour was fixed for the homebred philosopher of America to explain the mysteries of a new discovery in science to the royal family. They attended accordingly, and with an apparatus chiefly of his own invention, Dr Franklin exhibited many of those simple and amusing experiments, for which he was so noted, and at which the royal children, even those of a larger growth, were much delighted.

In this playful way, Dr Franklin took occasion to convey instructions as to the properties of this astonishing fluid. While the royal habitation was thus in a most unkingly uproar, the Premier was announced as in waiting. The King seemed for a moment disturbed. "I forgot my appointment with the minister," said he, "but no matter, I will eschew business for once, and let North see how we are employed." Accordingly the minister was ushered in with little ceremony, and it was soon concluded that he should have a shock. Allen whispered to the Dr. to remember how he had *shocked* us across the waters, and to give him a double charge; whether it was designed on the hint of his friend or not, was not ascertained, but the charge was so powerful on the nerves of his lordship, as to make him give way in the knees, at which all, especially the Princesses, were almost convulsed with mirth.

Some of Col. Allen's happy retorts at the clubs and fashionable parties are still remembered and often repeated. On one occasion he was challenged to a glass of wine, by the beautiful Duchess of Rutland, who seems to have been particularly pleased with his independent manner, "and you must qualify your glass with a toast," observed the lady. The 'Varmonter' very unaffectedly observed that he was not used to that sort of ceremony, and was afraid he might give offence. If, however, the lady would be so good as to suggest a subject, he would endeavor to give a sentiment. "O," said she, "never mind the subject—any thing will do, so that it has no treason in it." "Well," says he, "this may do for a truth if not for a toast," and, fixing his eyes adoringly on the far-famed court beauty, he proceeded:

"If any thing could make a double traitor out of a good patriot, it would be the witchcraft of such eyes as your ladyship's."

The blunt sincerity with which this was spoken, together with its exact fitness to the occasion and the person, caused it to be long hailed in the 'beau monde,' as an excellent good thing; and although it had the effect of heightening for a moment that beauty to which it was offered as a tribute, it is said the fair Duchess often afterwards boasted of the compliment as far before all the empty homage she had received from the glittering coxcombry of the city.

A lady once sneeringly asked Col. Allen, in a large assembly, at what time fashionable ladies in America preferred taking the air. He perceived her drift, and bluntly answered, "Whenever it was necessary to feed the geese and turkeys." "What," inquired the lady, "do the fine women in your country descend to such menial employments?" Allen was always aroused at any attempt to depreciate the fair ones of his own country, and with a good deal of warmth he replied, "American ladies have the art of turning even amusements to account.—Many of these ladies could take up the subject of your Grace's family history, and tell you of the feats of valor and bursts of eloquence to which your ladyship is probably indebted for your distinguished name, most of which it is likely, would be as new to you as the art of raising poultry." The sarcasm produced a deep blush in the face of the fair scoffer, but it procured for the captive and his countrymen an indemnity against court ridicule for the future.

An English gentleman, who had long been suffering with an imposthume, was declared by his physician to be at the point of death. Havin bade farewell to his wife and children, he expressed a wish to take leave of his servants. One after another they came in, kissed his hand, listened tearfully to his advice and blessing, and bowing low, left the room. Last of all came a favorite monkey. He too bowed respectfully, placed one paw in his master's hand, and with the other covered his eyes. At this ludicrous sight, the dying man burst into such a convulsion of laughter, that the imposthume broke, and he recovered.

Cromwell's Skull.—A person visiting a museum of curiosities, was shown the skull of Oliver Cromwell. "It is extremely small," said the visitor.—"Bless you sir," replied the Cicerone, "it was his skull when he was a little boy."

Henry VI. being asked why he went so meanly attired, answered, "It beseemeth a king to excel his subjects in virtue, not in vesture."

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